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THE DANCING MANIA.

By accident we have lately encountered an extremely curious and interesting book, bearing the title quoted below.* The subject treated is the Dancing Mania, the author having in other treatises (which we have not seen) considered the Black Death, and the Sweating Sickness, all of these having been "epidemics of the Middle Ages." In the preface to the volume before us, he speaks of having collected materials for the history of other prevailing diseases of that period; but we are not aware of his having published any such works.

It seems not improbable that the Dancing Mania, which for five centuries occasionally broke forth in Europe, took its origin in an accidental circumstance. In the year 1027, a few peasants disturbed divine service on Christmas eve, at the convent-church of Kolbig, near Bernburg, by brawling and dancing, whereupon the priest inflicted a curse upon them, that they should dance and scream for a whole year without ceasing. When we consider the superstitions of that age, we cannot be much surprised to learn that the men did continue to scream and dance as long as nature would allow, and were at length only relieved from the curse by the intercession of two pious bishops. The story adds, that four of them died of exhaustion, and that the survivors were never afterwards free from a trembling in their limbs.

This tale was of course told as a remarkable instance of the punishment of impiety, and we may well believe that it greatly impressed the minds of the people. The idea of frantic screaming and dancing, thus rendered familiar, became, of course, a ready shape or model for the conduct of persons under more than usual religious excitement, or who were, from whatever cause, in an unsound state of mind. There were probably many repetitions of the Kolbig scene within no long time after its occurrence; but we have no authentic notice of any such before the year 1237, when upwards of a hundred children were seized with this frenzy at Erfurt, and thence proceeded dancing and jumping along the road to Arnstadt. When they arrived at that place, they fell exhausted to the ground, and, according to an account of an old chronicle, many of them, after they were taken home by their parents, died, and the rest remained affected to the end of their lives with a perpetual tremor.

It was more than a century after the date last mentioned, when the dancing mania assumed for the first time the appearance of an epidemic. Certain persons of both sexes, who had travelled out of Germany, introduced it, in 1374, into Aix-la-Chapelle. They appeared in the streets and in churches, dancing wildly in circles, until, nature being exhausted, they sunk to the earth. From these persons it spread to others, and was soon propagated all over the Netherlands. In individual cases, the first symptoms were epileptic convulsions. Those affected fell to the ground senseless, panting and labouring for breath. They foamed at the mouth, and suddenly springing up, began their dance amidst strange contortions. For hours they would dance deliriously in circles, in the open streets, regardless of the bystanders and of all external objects, but wrapt apparently in internal visions, for they frequently shrieked out the names of spirits and of divine persons, and some would exclaim that they saw the heavens open before them. After continuing their spasmodic dancing and raving till

their last strength was gone, they fell to the ground, usually in a state of violent tympany or inflation, and apparently in the agonies of death; but when a cloth was tied tightly round them, or when they were soundly kicked or buffeted, they recovered, and were free from the delirium till its next attack. So usual was this result, that at length those who wandered about the country exhibiting their appalling malady, got swathing bands tied round them, to be ready for use. A stick inserted into this band, and twisted once or twice round, restored them to temporary soundness.

In the course of a few months, wandering bands of these frenzied dancers had propagated the disease all over the Netherlands. Wherever they appeared, the people flocked around them in crowds to gratify their curiosity with the frightful spectacle. In towns and villages, they took possession of the religious houses; processions were every where instituted on their account, and masses were said and hymns were sung. No one doubted that the disease was of the nature of a demoniacal possession. The priests, against whom they poured forth threatenings and imprecations, had recourse to exorcisms, being the more anxious to put an end to the malady, because some of the afflicted were heard to declare that they designed to enter the bodies of the nobility and princes, and, through these, to destroy the clerical order. The exertions of the priests were effectual, for exorcism was a powerful remedy in the fourteenth century. About ten months after its appearance, the disease had in a great measure ceased in Belgium.

It was about the same time advancing along the Rhine. At Cologne five hundred, and at Metz eleven hundred, were affected at the same time. The streets of the latter city were filled with the dancers, and the crowds of all sorts of people from town and country who flocked to behold and join in their wild revels. Children quitted their parents, servants their masters, mechanics their workshops, and housewives their domestic duties, to partake in the disorder which pervaded this rich commercial city. Many of the wandering dancers are understood to have been impostors, who assumed the character for the sake of adventures and maintenance; but these propagated the disorder as successfully as the truly afflicted, the susceptible being every where prepared to fall into a frenzy of which they heard so much. In the Rhenish cities, as in Belgium, it at length in a great measure exhausted itself, and for a time fell out of notice.

The time when this mania appeared in Germany, was remarkable in that country for civil disturbances. The barons were incessantly at war with each other, and the people suffered tremendous oppressions. In the early part of the year, the Rhine and Maine had overflowed their banks, and wrought grievous havoc in the country. There was consequently considerable suffering from want. These causes may be presumed to have given at this particular time an unusual tendency to a delirious disease, which superstition always kept more or less alive. Another circumstance is to be taken into account. St John's festival had for many ages been celebrated with rude dances, probably in allusion to the dancing of Herodias at his death. This saint had therefore become associated in the popular mind with the dancing mania. Now, his festival takes place in July, and we find it was in that month that the disease was introduced under such flagrant circumstances into Aix-la-Chapelle.

The dancing mania made another conspicuous appearance in the towns of Belgium and the Lower Rhine in 1418, when bands of the afflicted passed along from place to place, accompanied by musicians playing on bagpipes, and by innumerable spectators

attracted by curiosity. For a century after this period, it appeared from time to time, like other epidemics, and the symptoms were always of one kind. It now became known as St Vitus's dance, from a notion that to that saint was commissioned the power of curing it, for which reason his shrines were resorted to by the afflicted. It attacked people of all stations, especially those who led a sedentary life, such as shoemakers and tailors; but even the most robust peasants became its victims. The fury of some was so great, that they would dash their brains out against the walls and corners of buildings, or rush headlong into rapid rivers, where they were drowned. Roaring and foaming as they were, the bystanders could only succeed in restraining them by placing benches and chairs in their way, so that, by taking high leaps, their strength might be the sooner exhausted. Many, after wearing themselves out, would revive in a certain time, and join once more the frantic revel. The afflicted had some strange antipathies. They could not endure to see any one weeping; and when they saw a red garment, they flew at the wearers as infuriated cattle do, and endeavoured to tear them in pieces. The malady became nearly extinct about the beginning of the seventeenth century.

Varieties of the dancing mania appeared in other parts of Christendom during the middle ages.

There is in Apulia, in Southern Italy, a harmless species of spider, called the tarantula. About the same time that the dancers appeared in Germany and on the Rhine, the people of Apulia seem to have become possessed by a nervous dread of the bite of this little insect. Hence arose one of the strangest delusions that ever possessed the human mind. Those who were bitten, or supposed themselves to be bitten, "generally fell into a state of melancholy, and appeared to be stupified, and scarcely in possession of their senses. This condition was, in many cases, united with so great a sensibility to music, that, at the very first tones of their favourite melodies, they sprang up, shouting for joy, and danced on without intermission, until they sank to the ground exhausted and almost lifeless. In others, the disease did not take this cheerful turn. They wept constantly, and, as if pining away with some unsatisfied desire, spent their days in the greatest misery and anxiety. Others, again, fell into morbid fits of love; and instances of death are recorded, which are said to have occurred under a paroxysm of either laughing or weeping."

At the close of the fifteenth century, this malady had spread over Italy, and the virulence of its symptoms was increased. Nothing short of death was expected from the bite of either the tarantula or the scorpion; and all who fancied they had ever been so bitten, became victims of the disease. Sunk in profound melancholy, they never betrayed the least sensibility, except under the influence of music. At the sound of the flute or cithern, they awoke, as if by enchantment, opened their eyes, and, moving slowly at first, according to the measure of the music, gradually hurried on to the most passionate dance. It was generally observed that, on these occasions, the most rustic people showed a grace in their movements which never was observed under other circumstances in persons of their class. Musical pieces devised for the afflicted were called Tarantellas; some of them are preserved, and extracted into Dr Hecker's work. Dancing was sought for in this disorder as a means of relieving it. It was supposed that, by the exercise, the poison of the bite was diffused over the body, and not only made less intensely virulent, but expelled to some extent by perspiration, though it was still thought that, as it could not be thus altogether thrown off, a

* The Epidemics of the Middle Ages. From the German of J. F. C. Hecker, M. D., professor at Frederick William's University at Berlin. Translated by B. G. Babington, M. D. London: Sherwood, Gilbert, and Piper. 1838.

germ of the disorder must remain in the veins. When summer recurred, the malady again took possession of those formerly afflicted, and it was necessary again to resort to music. Thus, in time, the cure of the *Tarantism* became a kind of public festival of annual occurrence. Crowds attended these festivals, which became scenes of great general excitement, and many, particularly of the female sex, caught the malady, not from the poison of the spider, but "from the mental poison which they eagerly received through the eye."

Tarantism lasted in full vigour in Italy till the seventeenth century, at which time it might be said to be at its height. From the end of the seventeenth century it began to decline, until at length it was confined to single cases, as it now is. One great cause of the decline seems to have been the frequency of cases of imposture. These, being detected in great numbers, threw discredit over the whole, and, the "conceit" being thus shaken, people became less liable to be affected by the real disorder. The spirit of the eighteenth century, which was inquiring and anti-enthusiastic all over Europe, must also be acknowledged to have been unfavourable to a malady which perhaps took its origin in, and was all along supported by, religious extravagance.

Yet even during this cold period, there have not been wanting comparatively isolated instances of similar affections. In 1731, the grave of the Deacon Pâris (the zealous opponent of the Ultramontanists), in the cemetery of St Medard at Paris, became the scene of a singular popular mania. Many individuals were there seized with convulsions and tetanic spasms, causing them to roll upon the ground like maniacs, while their countenances and limbs were thrown into the most violent contortions. Crowds flocked to witness this spectacle, and the number of the patients at length became so great that the king found it necessary to issue an order to shut up the cemetery, or, as a wit expressed it, to forbid further miracles in that place. There can be no doubt that these proceedings were the consequence of the fervour to which certain devotees were wrought up by the controversy on account of the bull "Unigenitus." The enthusiasm and the convulsions are said to have been kept up by a small and obscure sect till the Revolution. The preachings of Whitfield, and those of several other divines of the like fervour of manner, were attended, as is well known, with similar effects both in Britain and America. In 1760, a sect originated in Cornwall, who acquired the name of Jumpers, in consequence of its being a regular part of their devotional exercises to work themselves, by the use of certain unmeaning words, into a spasmodic state, in the course of which they jumped with strange gesticulations, until they were exhausted.

In the last age a disorder, locally termed convulsion-fits, prevailed to a great extent in the remote archipelago of Shetland. The disorder was traced to a very simple circumstance, namely, the falling of an epileptic woman into a fit during service in one of the churches. The minds of the congregation being probably in a state of high excitement at the time, several individuals immediately experienced palpitation and faintness, and then fell into a motionless and apparently cataleptic condition. For years afterwards, especially during summer, similar occurrences frequently took place, but not always with the same symptoms, for women especially often fell into convulsions, and raved furiously, writhing their bodies into various shapes, and uttering the most dismal cries. It would have been easy perhaps to counteract these disorders. A sensible clergyman, newly introduced to his charge, finding the service much impeded by them, gave notice that, understanding immersion in cold water to be a cure for the malady, he should in future order every person so affected in church to be instantly carried out and plunged into the neighbouring lake. From that time the malady was heard of no more in that congregation.

A disorder of an analogous kind, called the leaping ague, was prevalent about the same time in Forfarshire. According to a writer in Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland, "Those affected with it first complain of a pain in the head, or lower part of the back, to which succeed convulsion-fits, or fits of dancing, at certain periods. During the paroxysm, they have all the appearances of madness, distorting their bodies in various ways, and leaping and springing in a surprising manner, whence the disease has derived its vulgar name. Sometimes they run with astonishing speed, and often over dangerous passes, to some place out of doors, which they have fixed on in their own minds, or perhaps mentioned to those in company with them, and then drop down quite exhausted. Cold bathing is found to be the most effectual remedy; but when the fit of dancing, leaping, or running, comes on, nothing tends so much to abate the violence of the disease as allowing them free scope to exercise themselves, till nature be exhausted."

At a cotton manufactory at Hodden Bridge in Lancashire, on the 15th February 1787, a girl put a mouse into the breast of another who had a great dread of mice. The girl was immediately thrown into a fit, and continued in it, with the most violent convulsions, for twenty-four hours. On the following day, three more girls were seized with fits similar to

what they had beheld in the first girl, and, on the 17th, six more became affected in the like manner. The work was now stopped, under an impression that a pestilence had been introduced into it through the medium of a bag of cotton. A physician was sent for from Preston; and before he arrived, three more were seized. On the morning of the 19th, there were in all twenty-three girls affected, besides one man, who had been much fatigued by holding the girls. Five other girls, working at a factory at Clitheroe, five miles distant, were affected merely by hearing of what took place at Hodden Bridge. The physician cured them by an electrical machine, and by assuring them that the malady was entirely nervous. Phenomena similar to these took place in 1801 at Berlin. A patient affected by tetanic spasms being introduced into the Charité Hospital there, and falling down at her entry in strong convulsions, six other patients, at sight of her, became affected in the same way, and by degrees eight more were attacked in the like manner. While their new ailment continued, their former complaints were banished, returning, however, after the convulsions had been cured, which was chiefly effected by the use of opium.

The various cases which have now been adduced, make it, we presume, quite plain, that there is a spasmodic disease, to which human beings are liable under certain predisposing circumstances, and which may be propagated through the medium of morbid sympathy, or, to speak more properly, the imitative faculty in a state of disease. Amongst the predisposing causes to this malady, the first is certainly nervous weakness, whether it may arise from great physical sufferings, or from the long-continued operations of a harassing superstition, or be simply a natural character of the individuals affected. Such, we should think, must have equally been the state of the oppressed and superstitious peasantry of Germany in the fourteenth century, of the over-taxed monotonously-labouring girls in the Hodden factory, and of the under-fed and lonely people of the Shetland Islands. It may also be induced in persons of better condition, by protracted exposure to addresses in which the most enthusiastic eloquence is employed to work upon the feelings. When many are in the requisite condition of nervous weakness, the disease passes from one to another by morbid sympathy, and the consequences are what we have seen.

If these be the proper inferences from the facts stated, it becomes clear and indubitable that many of the fervours which take place under the hallowed name of religion, do not proceed either from the good or evil spirit, as opposite sects have represented them, but are mere results of natural laws operating on the nervous system. On the importance of this deduction we need not pause to make a single remark.

A MODERN ROMANCE OF REAL LIFE.

IN explanation of the subjoined narrative, which is translated from a foreign newspaper, it is necessary to remind the reader that the island of Mauritius, appertaining at this day to the English, was originally colonised by the French, and that the population yet consists in a great measure of persons of that nation, to whom, by a formal treaty between the powers concerned, their ancient laws and usages were preserved without any material alterations.

About ten or twelve months ago, the Sieur Clodomir Frenois, a rich merchant of the island, was found dead and frightfully disfigured in his own habitation. His body was discovered lying on the floor, with the head and face mutilated by means of a pistol, and all doubt as to the cause of the catastrophe was dispelled by the discovery of the fatal weapon by the side of the corpse, and also of a paper in the handwriting of the deceased. This paper contained the following words: "I am ruined!—a villain has robbed me of twenty-five thousand livres sterling; dishonour must be my portion, and I cannot await or survive it. I leave to my wife the task of distributing among my creditors the means which remain to us, and I pray that God, my friends, and my enemies, may pardon my self-destruction! Yet another minute, and I shall be in eternity! (Signed) CLODOMIR FRENOIS."

Great was the consternation caused by this tragic event, which was the more unexpected, as the loss alluded to in the note had never been made public. The deceased had been held in great esteem over the colony as a man of strict honour and probity, and was universally lamented. His attached widow, after endeavouring faithfully to fulfil his last wishes, found her grief too overpowering to permit her to mingle longer with the world, and took the resolution of consecrating her remaining days to the services of religion. Two months after the sad end of her husband, she entered a convent, leaving to a nephew of the late merchant, a physician, the charge of completing the distribution of the effects of Frenois among his creditors.

A minute examination of the papers of the defunct,

led to the discovery of the period at which the unfortunate merchant had been robbed; and this period was found to correspond with the date of the disappearance of a man named John Moon, long in the employment of Frenois. Of this man, on whom suspicion not unnaturally fell, nothing could be learned on inquiry; but, shortly after the division of the late merchant's property, Moon reappeared in the colony. When taken up and examined respecting the cause of his flight, he stated that he had been sent by his master to France to recover certain sums due to the merchant there, in which mission he had been unsuccessful; and he further averred, that if Clodomir Frenois, in his existing correspondence, had thrown any injurious suspicions upon him (Moon), the whole was but a pretext to account for deficiencies of which the merchant himself was the sole cause and author. This declaration, made by a man who seemed to fear no inquiry, and whose worldly circumstances remained to appearance the same as they had ever been, had the effect of silencing, if it did not satisfy, the examiners, and the affair soon fell in a great measure out of the public recollection.

Things remained for a short time in this condition, when, one morning, Mr William Burnett, principal creditor of the late Clodomir Frenois, heard a knocking at his gate at a very early hour. He called up one of his servants, who went down and opened the door, and immediately returned with the intelligence that a stranger, who seemed desirous of keeping his person concealed, wished to speak with Mr Burnett in private. Mr Burnett rose, threw on his dressing-gown, and descended to the parlour. He saw there a stranger, of tall person, seated in an easy and familiar attitude upon a sofa, with a number of the Morning Post in his hand. The back of the visitor was turned to Mr Burnett as he entered. Rather surprised to see a stranger conduct himself so like an old friend of the house, Mr Burnett said aloud, "Sir, may I beg to know your business with me?"

The stranger turned round, and advanced to salute his host warmly and courteously. Mr Burnett started back, and uttered a loud exclamation of surprise and alarm. Well he might; for before his eyes stood his friend and debtor, Clodomir Frenois, whom he had beheld, nearly a year before, a mutilated corpse, and whom he himself had followed to the grave!

What passed at that interview between Mr Burnett and his strange visitor, remained for the time a secret. Mr Burnett was observed to issue several times, pale and agitated, from his dwelling, and to visit the magistrate charged with the conduct of the criminal processes of the colony. In the course of that day, while John Moon was regaling himself with tea under the palm-trees of his garden, along with a Circassian female whom he had bought some time previously, he was arrested and taken to prison by the officers of justice. On the following day, he was brought before the criminal court, accused of robbing the late Clodomir Frenois, the crime being conjoined with breach of trust and violence. Moon smiled at the charge, with all the confidence of a man who had nothing to fear. The judge having demanded of him if he confessed the crime, the accused replied, that the charge was altogether absurd; that clear testimony was necessary to fix such a delict upon him; and that, so far from there being any such evidence producible, neither the widow of the deceased, nor any one person in his service, had ever heard the pretended robbery even once mentioned by Frenois during his life.

"Do you then affirm your innocence?" repeated the judge gravely, after hearing all that the other had to say.

"I will avouch my innocence," replied Moon, "even before the body of my late master, if that be necessary." [Such a thing often took place under the old colonial law.]

"John Moon," said the judge, in a voice broken by some peculiar emotion, "it is before your late master that you will have now to assert your innocence, and may God make the truth appear!"

A signal from the judge accompanied these words, and immediately a door opened, and Clodomir Frenois, the supposed suicide, entered the court. He advanced to the bar with a slow and deliberate step, having his eye calmly but sternly fixed on the prisoner, his late servant. A great sensation was caused in the court by his appearance. Uttering shrieks of alarm and horror, the females present fled from the spot. The accused fell on his knees in abject terror, and shudderingly confessed his guilt. For a time, no voice was heard but his. However, as it became apparent that a living man stood before the court, the advocate for the prisoner gained courage to speak. He demanded that the identity of the merchant be established, and the mystery of his existence explained. He said that the court should not be biased by what might prove to be a mere accidental likeness between a person living and one deceased; and that such an avowal as that of the prisoner, extracted in a moment of extraordinary terror, was not to be held of much weight. "Before being admitted here as accuser or witness," continued the advocate, addressing the resuscitated merchant, "prove who and what you are, and disclose by what chance the tomb which so lately received your body, mangled by bullets, has given up its tenant, and restored you to the world in life and health!"

This firm appeal of the advocate, who continued steadfast to his duty under circumstances that would

have closed the lips of most men, called forth the following narrative from Clodomir Frenois. "My story may be soon told, and it will suffice to establish my identity. When I discovered the robbery committed by the accused, he had then fled from the island, and I speedily saw that all attempts to retake him would prove fruitless. I saw ruin and disgrace before me, and came to the resolution of terminating my life before the evil day came. On the night on which this determination was formed, I was seated alone in my private chamber. I had written the letter which was found on my table, and had loaded my pistol. This done, I prayed forgiveness from my Maker for the act of despair I was about to commit. The end of the pistol was at my head, and my finger on the lock, when a knock at the outer door of the house startled me. I concealed the weapon, and went to the door. A man entered, whom I recognised to be the sexton of the parish in which I lived. He bore a sack on his shoulders, and in it the body of a man newly buried, which was destined for my nephew, the physician, then living with me. The scarcity of bodies for dissection, as the court is aware, compels those who are anxious to acquire skill in the medical profession to procure them by any possible secret means. The sexton was at first alarmed at having met me. 'Did my nephew request you to bring this body?' said I. 'No,' replied the man; 'but I know his anxiety to obtain one for dissection, and took it upon me to come and offer him this body. For mercy's sake,' continued the sexton, 'do not betray me, sir, or I shall lose my situation, and my family's bread.'

While the man was speaking, a strange idea entered my mind, and brought to my despairing bosom hopes of continued life and recovered honour. I stood for a few minutes absorbed in thought, and then, recollecting myself, I gave two pieces of gold to the resurrectionist, the sum which he had expected. Telling him to keep his own counsel, and that all would be well, I sent him away, and carried the body to my cabinet. The whole of the household had previously been sent out of the way on purpose, and I had time to carry into execution the plan which had struck me. The body was fortunately of the same stature as myself, and like me in complexion. I knew the man; he had been a poor offender, abandoned by his family. 'Poor relic of mortality!' said I, with tears in my eyes, 'nothing which man may do can now injure thee; yet pardon me if I rudely disfigure thy lifeless substance. It is to prevent the ruin of not one, but twenty families! And should success attend my attempt, I swear that thy children shall be my children, and, when my own hour comes, we shall rest together in the tomb to which thou shalt be borne before me!'

At this portion of the merchant's narrative, the most lively interest was excited in the court, and testified even by tears from many of the audience. Frenois thus proceeded:—"I then stripped off my clothes, and dressed the body in them. This accomplished, I took up the pistol, and with a hand more reluctant than when I had applied it to my own person, I fired it close to the head of the deceased, and at once caused such a disfigurement as rendered it impossible for the keenest eye to detect the substitution which had been made.

Choosing the plainest habit I could get, I then dressed myself anew, shaved off the whiskers which I was accustomed to wear, and took other means to alter and disguise my appearance, in case of being subjected by any accident to the risk of betrayal. Next morning saw me on board a French vessel on my way to a distant land—the native country of my ancestors. The expectations which had led me to the execution of this scheme were not disappointed. I knew that John Moon, the man who had robbed me, and who now stands at the bar of this court, had formed connexions in this island, which would in all probability bring him back to it as soon as the intelligence of my death gave him the promise of security. In this I have not been disappointed. I have been equally fortunate in other respects. While my unworthy servant remained here in imaginary safety, I have been successful in discovering the quarter in which, not daring at first to betray here the appearance of wealth, he had lodged the whole of the stolen money. I have brought it with me, and also sufficient proofs, supposing his confession of this day to be set aside altogether, to convict him of the crime with which he stands charged. By the same means," continued Clodomir Frenois, with a degree of honourable pride in which all who heard him sympathised, "will I be enabled to restore my family to their place in society, and to redeem the credit of a name on which no blot was left by those who bore it before me, and which, please God, I shall transmit unstained to my children, and my children's children."

John Moon, whose guilt was thus suddenly and strangely laid bare to the world, did not retract the confession which he had made in the extremity of his terror, and, without separating, the court sentenced him to confinement for life in the prisons of the colony.

The news of Clodomir Frenois's re-appearance spread rapidly, and the high esteem in which his character was held led to an universal rejoicing on the occasion. He was accompanied from the court to his home by a dense multitude, who welcomed him with prolonged shouts. It would be vain to attempt any description of the feelings of the wife, who thus saw restored to

her the beloved being for whose sake she had quitted the world. She was released from her ecclesiastical vows, and rejoined her husband, no more to part till the grave really claimed one or other of them as its due.

REPORT RESPECTING THE IRISH POOR.

THE Sixth Annual Report of the Poor-Law Commissioners has just been published. Only a few pages are devoted to matters connected with England; but from what is said, the gratifying fact may be learned, that the new law is in all places working well, and fulfilling the expectations of its projectors. The rule, which is inflexibly acted upon in all the combined parishes or unions, of placing relief for the able-bodied upon the simple alternative of coming into the workhouse, has been attended with the best results. Masses of individuals are now employed, and living as independent labourers, who formerly relied upon a parish allowance in aid of their wages. The demoralising practice of giving money in aid of wages to able-bodied labourers, is not yet altogether abolished, but it is annually declining, and will ultimately be unknown. At the present time, there are still 799 parishes in England and Wales which have not been brought under the operation of the Poor-Law Amendment Act, containing a population of more than two millions of souls.

The bulk of the volume is devoted to proceedings in Ireland, in reference to the extension of the law to that country. The business of sectioning the country into unions, and building a workhouse in each, has been actively carrying on throughout the past year. The number of unions declared up to the 25th of March 1840, is 104, and 30 more will probably complete the total number of unions into which Ireland will be arranged. The formation of unions was followed by elections of guardians by the rate-payers; and the new measures seem generally to have produced satisfaction in the various districts. Sixty workhouses have been contracted for, and are now in progress of erection. The houses of the old charitable foundations are likewise in the course of being remodelled to meet the arrangements of the new system, which has already, or will very shortly, come into operation in the Dublin and Cork unions. The various boards of guardians concur in representing, that as soon as the workhouses in their respective jurisdictions are ready for the reception of inmates, all public begging and mendicant vagrancy should cease; and to accomplish this desirable object, they express a hope that a vagrant act will be passed, similar to that which applies to England. It may seem hard that paupers should not be allowed to seek alms from the charitably disposed; but in all matters of this kind we must consult general, not individual, advantage. Beggary is a disgrace in a civilised community. It argues that society is in a wrong condition. The least that can be said of it is that it is a nuisance, and is practically a tax on the benevolence for the support of the poor, while the more churlishly disposed, but not the least wealthy, escape. Thus, in Dublin, under the old state of things, the entire charge for the poor fell exclusively on the benevolent. We rejoice, therefore, that by the law as now constituted for Ireland, every household in ordinary circumstances will be compelled to pay his fair share for the support of his poorer brethren. The establishment of workhouses, to which every man, woman, and child, in a state of destitution, may resort for relief, is the only effectual remedy against the nuisance of begging, because it leaves no excuse whatever for the application of the mendicant, and permits us with a safe conscience to refuse his request. The country which possesses no workhouses or other establishments for the ready relief of the pauper, and yet prevents public begging, commits a monstrous crime; in fact, it consigns myriads of unfortunate creatures to pinching penury and starvation. We are not overlooking here that the more important benefit of a poor-law is its supporting the moral tone of the humbler orders of the people, keeping them above that degree of want which induces despair and recklessness, and the effects of which have already been more frightfully exemplified in Ireland than in any other country.

Two of the most instructive papers in the Report are those on the proposed workhouse dietaries in Ireland, by Messrs Hawley and Hall, assistant poor-law commissioners. Mr Hawley gives us the following account of the common food of the people:—"That the potato is the staple food of the peasantry is a fact too well known to require any proof; and it will hardly be necessary to state, that I have found the use of this vegetable to prevail in all parts of my district. The grand object of the peasant, when planting the potato, is to raise the largest crop on the smallest extent of land; and with this view the sorts called *lumpers* and *whites* are generally preferred, as being most prolific; they are, however, of a very inferior and a watery nature, and the loss in cooking reduces them in weight much more than the superior kinds; but as the gross produce of these potatoes, on any given portion of land, is considerably greater than that of any of the other sorts, they continue to hold the preference. The market value of the several sorts corresponds with their quality, and the cheapness of the lumpers and the whites, the two sorts above mentioned, furnishes another reason for their general use.

The potato is eaten at every meal, and throughout

all seasons of the year. A failure of the crop, or even an improvident use of an abundant supply, frequently, however, causes the necessity of resorting to the use of other species of food; and oatmeal, eggs, butter, lard, dripping, and herrings, are then partially though sparingly substituted for it, particularly in the months of May, June, and July, when the old crop is exhausted, and the new is not yet ready for digging, an operation which generally commences about the first week in August. Milk, after being skimmed, as in the state of buttermilk, in the districts where dairy farms abound, is also much used; the quantity consumed being regulated by the nature of the district and the consequent supply, which varies according to the season of the year, being of course least plentiful in the winter months. When the supply of milk fails, water becomes the only beverage of the working class; and their dry meal of potatoes has then a relish imparted to it by the addition of a herring, which is generally eaten by the heads of the family, the children dipping the potatoes into the sauce in which it was cooked. Illness appears to be most prevalent at those seasons of the year when water is used as the only beverage. Frequently lard with salt is boiled in water, and the potatoes dipped into this mixture, which is called *dip*.

Labourers employed by farmers, who are obliged, by the terms of their contract, to feed them, are, in many instances, better off than those who receive full money wages, and cater for themselves. Butter, eggs, milk, and even meat, are occasionally furnished them; but if left to his own resources, the labourer rarely tastes animal food. Porridge, composed of oatmeal boiled in water, with salt and pepper, is a frequent substitute for potatoes.

There is little doubt that the pernicious custom of whisky-drinking has hitherto abridged the domestic comforts, by tending to deteriorate the quality of the food used by the families of the peasantry. It would be premature to reason upon the future effects likely to be produced by the reformation in this respect lately introduced; but from inquiries which I am constantly making at the village shops, where groceries as well as spirits are sold, I find that there is an increase in the sale of the former, more than in the ratio to the decrease of the latter, and that tea, coffee, and bread, are now purchased by the poor for consumption in their cabins, and public coffee-shops are established in most of the towns.

Perhaps it may not be out of place to state here, that there is also a remarkable improvement in the dress of those who were formerly addicted to drunkenness; and this, in conjunction with the fact stated above, affords a proof that the poor generally are beginning to appreciate those comforts which an abstinence from intoxicating liquors has now placed within their reach.

The number of meals eaten during the day by the labouring class is very generally regulated by the following circumstances, namely, the season of the year, the locality, the supply of fuel, and the supply of food. In the short days in the months of November, December, and January, in manufacturing towns, and at times when turf is scarce and dear, the supply of potatoes falling short, and employment scarce, supper is frequently omitted; but at other times, and under different circumstances, particularly where hard labour has to be performed, a third meal is partaken of.

The quantity of food consumed by able-bodied women is almost invariably less than that consumed by able-bodied men, but in quality it is precisely similar. Males up to sixty years of age consume fully as much as young men in the prime of life, and those above sixty very little less. The same proportional consumption of food is also observable in women. There is more difficulty in obtaining any correct data as to the relative consumption of food by children of all ages; but from the best information I can obtain, I am led to suppose that those upwards of ten years of age require fully as much as a full-grown woman to sustain them, at the period of life when muscular expansion and a rapid digestion require equivalent support." Mr Hawley here adds a table, showing the quantity and nature of the food consumed by individuals in various parts of the country. It appears from this, that in most places the breakfast of an able-bodied man is about four and a-half pounds of potatoes; dinner the same, but herrings or lard are substituted when milk is scarce; supper is seldom taken. Women eat about one pound less of potatoes daily. Rarely is bread or oatmeal used. It may be said, with the trifling exceptions to which Mr Hawley alludes, the universal diet consists of from eight to nine pounds of potatoes, and two and a-half pints of skimmed or buttermilk daily. The weight is calculated with the potatoes raw; there is a loss of two ounces in every pound in boiling. In jails, hospitals, and houses of industry, from six to eight ounces of oatmeal made into porridge are in many instances substituted for the potatoes at breakfast; and sometimes a kind of potato soup is given for dinner. There is, therefore, reason to believe, that hitherto the diet afforded in jails and hospitals has been superior to the ordinary food enjoyed by the humbler orders out of these establishments.

We now come to Mr Hall's report, which consists of suggestions for the adoption of the guardians in the Dublin unions. "The essential principle to be attended to," he proceeds to observe, "in framing a dietary for a workhouse, appears to be, that the food of a pauper, maintained at the public cost, should not

be more abundant or better than that of the poor man maintaining himself in independence by his industry. In England it has been found very difficult to preserve this principle; it was almost impossible, in many districts, to prescribe a diet less abundant, and of inferior quality, than that of the majority of the labouring classes, and at the same time sufficient to keep the inmates of the workhouse, belonging to the same classes, in health and strength. It is well known to all who have accurately inquired into the matter, that the diet ordered or allowed by the poor-law commissioners for the English workhouses, is in many, not to say in most instances, superior in quality, and more nutritious than the ordinary diet of the poor; a fact attested by the improvement generally observable in the condition of the inmates, within a short period after their admission into the workhouse.

Such being the case in England, it must be expected that the difficulty of regulating the dietary of the paupers, so as not to hold out the additional inducement of superior food to those who may be already disposed, by the prospect of shelter and clothing, to seek relief from the union, instead of working for a livelihood, will be even greater in Ireland. And yet, exactly in proportion to the difficulty of adjusting the diet according to this principle, is the necessity of being careful to do so; because, where subsistence is precarious, scanty, and unwholesome, and, such as it is, not to be obtained without severe exertion, a supply of food, even of tolerable quality and in moderate quantity, yet provided regularly and without fail, becomes almost irresistibly attractive to the poor. Where such is the case, there is great danger of those tests becoming ineffectual, whereby some security is given that none but the actually destitute are relieved; and when once pauperism becomes on the whole, and in the estimation of a large portion of the poorer classes, more eligible than independence, evils which cannot be contemplated without dread are sure to follow.

It is matter of notoriety that meat is rarely, if ever, tasted by the Irish peasant; and the fact of its being almost universally excluded from the dietaries of public institutions, shows that the change in his habits and circumstances in life that a man undergoes when he becomes an inmate of any of them, does not render a change of diet necessary for his well-being. This almost general rule may be proved by the few exceptions that occur. Your assistant commissioner, Mr Phelan, whose medical knowledge and professional experience add great weight to his opinion, when discussing this point in a report on dietaries, writes as follows:—"The dietaries of prisons are of three descriptions—bread diet, mixed diet, and vegetable diet. Each consists of only two meals. The first, for various reasons, is in most use: but, from no inconsiderable acquaintance with prison discipline, I am satisfied that the third is the best—that which would keep the prisoners in better health. This consists of stirabout and new milk for breakfast, and potatoes and skimmed milk for dinner." And again, in another part of the same report, he says, "Whether meat or broth should be allowed in our workhouses is a matter of doubt with me, as those who are likely to become the inmates but rarely obtain either at their own residences, or at their own expense, except perhaps about three or four times a-year. If meat be at all allowed, it should be extremely well boiled, so that the soup or vegetable porridge prepared with it may be used at dinner instead of milk, and that the meat itself will be considered as of less value than such soup or porridge. I have come to this conclusion from having frequently found, to my very great annoyance, that more serious affections of the bowels occurred within the twenty-four hours after meat and broth had been used in the Clonmel House of Industry, than during the remainder of the week."

Mr Hall having submitted the subject to the consideration of the guardians of the South Dublin Union, a committee of the body reported in complete agreement with the views above expressed, and proceeded to suggest that therefore two meals a-day would be sufficient for the paupers in the workhouse, namely, a breakfast and dinner. "They advise," says the report, "that on two days of the week the dinner should consist of broth made of ox-heads and shins, and other coarse pieces of beef, together with potatoes, to be mashed up therein; the allowance for each adult pauper to be four pounds of potatoes, weighed before cooking; on the other five days potatoes and buttermilk, the allowance for each adult being four pounds of potatoes (weighed raw), and one pint of buttermilk. They advise that the breakfast every day should consist of oatmeal boiled into stirabout, and new milk; the allowance for each adult pauper being seven ounces of meal, and half-a-pint, imperial measure, of milk." Finally, they advise "that food of the same kind, but in less quantities, with a portion of bread, be provided for the children; and that the sick and infirm be dieted according to the directions of the medical officer."

It thus appears, that, in organising the workhouse system in Ireland, the same anxiety has been felt as in England to keep the diet on a level with that usually enjoyed by the independent labourer out of doors. To the feelings of people living in this country, the two meals and no supper allowed to the Irish pauper, is no pleasant subject of reflection; but no one can dispute that, to make the diet superior within to what it is without doors, would be deeply injurious. Here, as in many other cases, one must to a certain

extent make general principles yield to what is locally expedient. At the same time, it is not to be overlooked that the Irish diet, even where it consists only of two meals, is one of far superior aggregate weight to any other diet which has ever been statistically ascertained. The diet of the working people of Britain in general is about twenty-four ounces of solids per day, chiefly meal, and only in small part animal food. Against this, nine pounds of potatoes, watery as the root is, makes a good appearance. We must own, indeed, that we are a good deal surprised at learning the aggregate weight of the Irish peasant's daily diet. In weight it is immense, and we suspect that, though unvaried, and attended by little relief or relief, it must be, upon the whole, where there is open-air exercise along with it, healthy and sustaining.

VISIT TO A SUGAR HOUSE.

A SHORT time ago curiosity led us to visit an establishment for the refining of sugar, and we were equally pleased and surprised to observe the extraordinary improvements which in latter times have taken place in that branch of manufacture. What with improved modes of clarifying and boiling, the art of sugar refining has been almost entirely altered in character within the last twenty or thirty years.

Sugar, as is generally known, arrives from the place of its produce in a brown or raw mass, which is a concretion of the juice of the sugar-cane, divested of its molasses or uncrystallisable syrup. This coarse material, on being brought to the establishment of the refiner, is in the first place put into a vessel with water, and subjected to a process of purification; but this early stage of the manufacture possesses little interest, and we therefore pass on to the second, which consists in draining the partially cleansed liquid through a bed of bone charcoal. The manner in which the draining is performed is not always the same, there being constantly improvements and alterations upon it; it may, however, be described as follows. A black granulated substance, bearing an exact resemblance to gunpowder, and made by braying charred bones, is purchased in large quantities by sugar refiners from the manufacturers of the article. As much as perhaps a ton of this substance is placed in a large chest lined with lead, and having outlets at the bottom for the escape of the liquid. Upon the bed of charcoal so prepared, there is sent a flow of syrup for the purpose of filtration, and, strange to say, notwithstanding the blackness of the powder, the liquor is found to run from it very nearly pure and light in colour. Much of the brown colouring property of the sugar is thus deposited in the charcoal, which, after a certain length of time, requires to be washed away, when the substance is again charred in retorts and again applied to this exceedingly useful process of filtration. The employment of charred bones for this object is of comparatively modern date, and was the discovery of a Frenchman. It has greatly lessened the expense and simplified the process of refining.

The syrup, having now undergone all its preliminary purifications, is removed to pans in which it is to be boiled, that being necessary to cause it to granulate or crystallise. It is at this point that we see the most remarkable improvement in the art of refining. Formerly, the boiling was effected in large open pans heated beneath by a fire. Neither open pans nor fire are now used. The boiling is effected in closed copper vessels by means of steam. It may here be mentioned, that little or no fire is now employed in any branch of refining, all the heating that is desirable at the various stages in the process being now accomplished by steam, conducted in iron tubes from large boilers kept constantly in operation. Thus we find heating vessels at all parts of the establishment, and on wooden floors, from the garret to the cellar. A steam engine is at the same time kept at work, performing a variety of offices, including the raising up of huge casks from the ground to the higher floors of the house.

When it was the practice to boil the syrup in open pans, the liquid, as a matter of course, was exposed to the pressure of the atmosphere, which prevented it from arriving at the vaporific or boiling point till it reached a temperature of 220 degrees—a pitch of heat which impaired the quality of the sugar, while the vaporisation carried off a portion of what was really valuable. There are few liquid articles of food, those of vegetable product in particular, which are not injured by being boiled at a temperature of 212 degrees, but, to boil them at a less heat, it would be necessary to remove the atmospheric pressure from their surface, and this would be attended with a considerable degree of trouble and expense to the operator. The magnitude of the scale on which sugar is prepared, has permitted this to be effectually done. The syrup is poured through a pipe into a pan made of copper, which is a flattened sphere in form, measuring six feet in diameter, and from four to five feet deep at the middle. On the top of this flattened round vessel there is a raised part, resembling a kettle with a lid,

into which the vapour rises, and to which an air-pump is attached. The steam for heating is conducted from a boiler to a vacant space between the outer and inner shell of the lower part of the pan. The vessel is thus kept quite close, and impervious to the outer air. All things being prepared for boiling, the air-pump, wrought by a steam-engine, begins to work, and draws off the air in the pan, as well as the vapour which arises in the ebullition. By particular arrangements in the process, all that is valuable in the withdrawn vapour is condensed and saved as it passes out, so that nothing is lost to the manufacturer. Except for the care taken in this respect, the loss incurred by pumping off the saccharine vapour would be immense. The withdrawal of the atmospheric pressure from the surface of the liquid, allows it to boil at a temperature of about 150 degrees, at which the good qualities of the sugar are no way deteriorated. Having boiled the proper length of time, the contents of the pan are allowed to escape by opening a plug beneath, and fall into an open vessel for their reception on the floor below. The vessel employed in this office was in former times called the cooler, because in it the liquid was cooled down from 220 to 180 degrees, the latter being the temperature at which crystallisation may best be effected. In the present day, the cooler has become a heater, for with the aid of steam enclosed round its sides, it is now used for elevating the temperature of the liquid from 150 to 180 degrees. The thick and viscous syrup being now fully prepared, is transferred from the heater, in copper ladles, to the moulds in which it is to cool and become firm. These moulds are of unglazed brown earthenware, and conical in form. They are of different sizes, according to the size of the loaf which is required, or from about twelve to twenty inches in depth. They are supported in rows on the floor, or in a frame with the broad open end uppermost; in the narrow pointed tip below, there is an orifice which is at first closed by a bit of twisted paper, but afterwards opened to allow a drainage of the coarser particles. The inverted cones are now left to cool, the temperature of the air around being gradually lowered, to assist and modify the process of crystallisation. At one time it was customary to place layers of pipeclay, in a liquid state, on the surface of the cooled mass in the cones, for the purpose of pressing down the refuse liquid; the more improved practice now consists of substituting for the clay certain quantities of refined sugar liquor, which runs through the loaf, and draws off the coloured molassy matter by the inferior orifice. This matter, as in the case of all droppings throughout the process, is carefully preserved, and forms one of the varieties of the saccharine product. Being thoroughly drained, the loaves are taken from the cones, and dried or baked in an oven raised to a temperature of from 130 to 140 degrees, by means of steam. Formerly, the baking was effected by a stove, and hence the danger of fire in the old sugar-baking establishments. After being baked, the loaves may be said to be ready for market, and are individually tied up in blue paper, as we see them in the shops of the grocers.

Such is a rough sketch of the modern process of sugar refining, in which, for the sake of intelligibility, we have avoided saying any thing of the different qualities of the article which are prepared. It must be understood, however, that the original raw sugar, in the course of its refinement, produces at least four kinds of material—double refined loaves, usually of about ten pounds in weight each; coarser loaves of four or five times that weight, called *lumps*, which are largely used by confectioners, &c.; a very coarse brown sugar called *bastards*, which is used only by the humblest classes; and, lastly, treacle or molasses. The produce of a hundredweight of raw sugar, in former times, was estimated at about sixty-four pounds of double and single refined lumps, fourteen pounds of bastards, twenty-eight of treacle, with six of trash or deficiency. In consequence of improvements in the manufacture, but chiefly by the use of the vacuum pans, a greater proportion of refined lumps is now produced from the same quantity of the article, to the benefit both of the maker and consumer. An idea of the great value of the vacuum pans may be had from the fact, that the inventor, near the expiry of his patent, realised, in all probability, not less than £40,000 a-year for liberty to use it; some manufacturers paid £2000 annually for this important privilege. The patent being expired, any one may now freely use the vacuum pans.

The quantity of refined sugar made from any given quantity of the raw material, depends not only on these improved processes, but on the original quality of the sugar employed. In this respect sugars differ very considerably, some being coarse and brown in quality, and others more pure and light. I was made very sensible of this, on being conducted into the store of the sugar-house after having seen the various operative departments of the concern. On a table there lay spread out a number of samples of raw sugar ready for the inspection of customers; and having observed that these were generally of a coarse appearance, the manufacturer took from a drawer a small packet containing a quantity of sugar of a much finer quality. "This," I remarked, "will of course be a much dearer sugar." "No such thing," he answered, "that sugar is much cheaper, but we cannot offer it for sale." "For what reason?" I inquired. "Because that fine sample is sugar from Brazil, and it is not allowed to

be introduced into this country except at such a heavy duty as amounts almost to a prohibition. We can buy it for 22s. 6d. per hundredweight, but being loaded with 63s. of duty, we are compelled to purchase that West India sugar which you see on the table, at 54s. 3d., which, with 23s. 3d. of duty, is raised to 79s. 6d."

In the compass of a few words, here was delivered one of the most striking lectures on political economy which it had ever been my fortune to hear. A single instant had served to explain that very incomprehensible affair, the high price of sugar, of which Mrs Balderstone had latterly been making such doleful complainings. This high price, it seems, had arisen from no general scarcity of the article; there had been only a shortcoming in the West India colonies, and the people of Great Britain had been such extraordinary simpletons as to continue buying bad sugar in limited quantities from that quarter, at 54s. per hundredweight, rather than buy a better article from Brazil, or any where else, at 22s. 6d. Did ever any one hear of such a piece of absurdity!

Before leaving the establishment, my friend enlightened me with a few more details respecting the sugar trade. It was a subject I had never before known anything of, and therefore the information had all the effect of novelty. Perhaps the reader may allow me to retail a few particulars for his advantage.

Up till the year 1839, there was no material reduction in the quantity of sugar imported from the West Indies, East Indies, and Mauritius, but in that year quite a new state of things arose; there was a falling off in the imports from thence to the extent of from 8000 to 9000 tons; the usual imports of 210,000 tons having fallen to 201,900 in one year. We are at the same time informed that there will be a much greater deficiency this present year. Fortunately, while there has been a decrease in the production of West India sugar, there has been an increase in that of Siam, Java, and the Philippine Islands, where the culture is carried on by free labourers. Lately, there were 10,000 tons of this sugar lying in bond in London; but being foreign, and not from a British colony, it could not be bought, except, as above mentioned, at a prohibitive duty. Foreign grown sugars, whether raised by free or compulsory labour, being thus practically excluded from the home market, while the scarcity of colonial sugars continues to increase, the result is that we are voluntarily paying more than double price for all the sugar we use. In other words, if the people thought proper to buy and consume foreign sugar, paying upon it the same duty as is laid upon the West India product, they would have it for 47s. 9d. per hundredweight, instead of 85s. 6d.—in plain terms, every poor man might have for 7d. that for which he now pays 1s. It appears that by this our fancy for buying from a dear instead of a cheap shop, we are absolutely giving away about £4,000,000—some say £5,000,000—annually. We are assured that if the present self-imposed dearth continues, the loss will not be less than £6,000,000.

This magnificent self-denial on the part of John Bull is only equalled by his generosity to other nations. Though he will not buy cheap foreign sugar for his own use, he has no objection whatever to supply others with it to their heart's content. Foreign sugars—the produce of free or compulsory labour, it is all the same which—are imported in large quantities to be manufactured into refined loaves in bonded warehouses. London is the great seat of this trade. The sugar is brought in ships up the Thames, landed on wharfs which are secluded by lock and key from the public, and, after being refined by those processes of art which I have already described, is again put on board ship, and sent abroad to any country which will buy it. By this arrangement, fine lump sugar, such as we are buying here for 112s. per hundredweight, or 1s. per pound, is exported to the continent or elsewhere at 37s. or 38s., or something like 4s. or 5s. below what we are paying for common treacle!!!

These things appear so inconsistent with ordinary principles of action, that the mind can hardly be brought to that point of credulity to believe them. Unfortunately, they are but too true, as the excessive dearth of an important article of daily food, not to speak of other evidence, amply testifies. As a question of legislation, we have no wish to intrude either an opinion or observation on the subject. We only take the liberty of laying before our readers a few facts intimately connected with their domestic expenditure and comforts. It has been observed as a feature in social life, that the state of civilisation and physical comfort of a people are generally proportionate to their use of sugar; the condition, at least, of most European nations, might be guessed with tolerable accuracy from this fact in statistics. Should there be any truth in the remark, we are brought to the melancholy conclusion that the condition of the people of this country is suffering a deterioration. Although the population increases 1½ per cent. annually, the quantity of sugar consumed remains the same, or, strictly speaking, is falling off. The mass of the population evidently cannot keep up to the sugar pitch of domestic comfort—they fall back upon food less pleasing to the palate, and, we fear, less nourishing to the system. While the allowance of sugar is gradually diminishing to the less opulent class of persons in England, it is increasing in a greater ratio in almost every other European country. As is generally known, the cultivation of the beet-root has

received a great impulse during the last few years in France, and other parts of the continent. In the year 1838, in France alone, the quantity of sugar yielded from this source was 80,000 tons, and since then, establishments in this branch of industry have grown up in various districts of Prussia and central Germany. The effect of this augmented supply among our neighbours has been to check British exports, and to reduce the price of sugar on the continent to much below what it is in England. We believe, that in most European countries, the best lump sugar is now to be obtained at 4d. per pound, exclusive of any duty which may be chargeable upon it. As the people of Great Britain, from a regard for their colonies, will neither cultivate beet-root sugar, nor import sugar of any kind from foreign countries for home consumption, they accordingly must endure the pecuniary loss and privations which such acts of self-denial impose upon them.

RECENT PROCEEDINGS IN AND RESPECTING NEW ZEALAND.

THE public at large have probably a very vague and imperfect idea of the recent proceedings in and respecting New Zealand. We shall endeavour to bring together such particulars of these proceedings as may form an historical outline of what we cannot but consider as among the most important transactions in the way of colonial settlement that have taken place in our time.

It may be mentioned, in the first place, that the *New Zealand Association*, of whose designs we gave some account in the *Journal* for December 9, 1837, ceased to have a distinct existence soon after that period. That association, as well as an earlier one called the *New Zealand Company*, and a private copartnership named the *New Zealand Colonisation Company*, which was established in August 1838, may be said to have merged in a "*NEW ZEALAND COMPANY*," which was organised in May 1839, and is now the most conspicuous association of individuals for promoting emigration to that part of the world.

When this company started into existence sixteen months ago, the minds of many individuals of all orders were ripe for affording it encouragement; and to this circumstance, in some measure, we may attribute the remarkable success it met with. From the Colonisation Company, merged in it, it inherited an extensive territory adjoining the Kaipara and Hokianga harbours in the northern island; which territory had been recently purchased by the Colonisation Company, but not surveyed. While as yet the new company had formed no other connexion whatever with New Zealand, but entirely upon the faith of being able to purchase land and effect settlements, it issued proposals to sell, to intending colonists, what it might be said as yet not to possess, namely, 990 sections of land in what was to be the principal settlement of the company, wherever that might be pitched, each section to consist of 100 acres of country land, and one acre of town land; 110 similar sections being reserved for the use of native settlers. Thus, the first principal settlement was to consist of 1100 sections in all, or 111,100 acres. Let the reader mark, these sections had as yet no geographical situation; the whole settlement was as yet, we might say, in the clouds. Nevertheless, within seven weeks from the issue of the proposals, purchasers had come forward for all the disposable sections, and the company had in its treasury, as the purchase-money, £99,990. Of this sum, however, they professed to have a right to only a fourth part. The remainder, £74,992, 10s., was reserved to be employed in carrying out labourers to the settlement, according to what we may call the *Wakefield plan of colonisation*, already followed in South Australia. It is important to add, that priority in the choice of sections was determined by lot.

This company has had to contend at its outset with one great difficulty. The British government refused to afford its plan of settlement any countenance, so that no provision for maintaining order in the new colony could be had, besides what was afforded by a gentleman who possessed an old commission as a justice of peace in New Zealand, derived from General Macquarie, governor of New South Wales. The company, nevertheless, proceeded with their scheme, and the government soon after found it advisable to send out a Lieutenant-Governor of New Zealand, whose proceedings we shall have occasion to notice hereafter.

The whole procedure of the company, and of those dealing with it, forms a singular and striking example of that confidence between parties which is only to be expected in even its simplest forms amidst a commu-

nity considerably advanced in civilisation. Not only was the ground of the first settlement paid for before it had a cognisable existence, but, before its existence was yet known in Britain, nine ships, containing 1125 emigrants, had been dispatched to it. There was first the *Tory*, of 382 tons, which sailed on the 5th of May 1839, with only six emigrants, but containing Colonel Wakefield, the company's principal agent for the arrangement of settlements, and a great store of articles designed to be employed in bartering for land with the native chiefs. Colonel Wakefield, it may be remarked, had distinguished himself in the Spanish service, and is brother of the author of the well-known plan of colonisation followed on this occasion. On August 1st, followed the *Cuba* of 373 tons, with eight first-class emigrants, and twenty-two labourers, and containing also the surveying staff, under Captain W. M. Smith of the royal artillery. In the middle of September, the *Oriental*, *Aurora*, and *Adelaide*, respectively of 506, 550, and 640 tons, proceeded on the same voyage, with a large body of emigrants of both classes. All of these were from London. On October 5th, the *Duke of Roxburghe* sailed from Plymouth with 167 settlers. Three other vessels, one of which was from Glasgow, and two from London, sailed before the end of the year. Besides these, there were three ships containing stores, designed to guard against the possibility of any deficiency of necessities being felt during the early days of the settlement.

Behold, then, nine vessels proceeding on their voyage to this distant clime, the last ignorant of the fate of the first, and all of them unknowing of a particular destination—the rudiments of a new state all afloat at once in search of ground on which it might be set up! The voyage of the *Tory* was prosperous, and uncommonly quick. In ninety-six days from Plymouth, namely, on the 16th of August, she hove in sight of Cape Farewell, the northern point of the Southern Island, and which forms one side of the opening, named Cook's Straits, between the two islands. She lost no time in standing through the Straits, and on the 18th she anchored in Ship Cove, as nearly as possible in the same spot that Captain Cook occupied in his three visits to the island. Colonel Wakefield, in his journal, describes the Southern Island as forbidding in its appearance at a distance—"a succession of apparently barren mountains stretching away from the coast till they reach those covered with snow in the interior." But, "on nearing the land, you find that the whole is covered to the very highest points with timber and brushwood, which not till then betray their perpetual verdure." Ship Cove, in the northern island, was a beautiful place. "The water, tranquil as an inland lake, has ten fathoms' depth within a ship's length of the shore, which is covered to the water's edge with an evergreen forest, consisting of every variety of indigenous tree and shrub, so thick as to be scarcely penetrable, and presenting to the eye an undulating carpet of verdure reaching to the summit of the surrounding mountains, the highest of which is from 1200 to 1500 feet. The birds, as in the time of the immortal English navigator, fill the air with their notes, the mingling of which he has aptly likened to the tinkling of small bells; and the sea teems with fish, of which we caught enough with hooks and lines for the whole ship, before we dropped anchor. These consisted of hake, cole-fish, spotted dog-fish, gurnet, flounder, and joe-fish, all of which are eatable. . . ."

It being Sunday, after the ship was moored and the decks cleared, I dismissed the natives, with a request that they would come early to-morrow with what they had for sale, and went on shore with the naturalist and other gentlemen of the expedition. The little beach, with its springs and rivulets, retains, at the distance of nearly seventy years, vestiges of Cook's visits, in the timber cut down but not used by him, the wild radishes and cabbages, and the space cleared for his forge and workshop.

The wood is almost impenetrable on the sides of the hills from the web of supplejacks and creepers; but for a hundred yards from the beach there is a swampy flat, through which run three rivulets of delicious water, which, flowing from the heights, here assume a shape before mixing with the water of the bay.

The soil here and on the hills is very rich, being, in fact, the decayed vegetation of centuries, and in the flat producing a thick carpet of weeds and herbage; but even were the land cleared higher up, which would be a work of time, it is doubtful whether the great acclivity would not prevent cultivation for the purposes of husbandry, though there can be little doubt that the vine and Indian corn might be grown up to the summit."

It was at this time winter in New Zealand; and the thermometer ranged between 40 and 56 in the shade. "The climate," says Wakefield, "very much resembles that of the north of Portugal; the most lovely days bursting out in the middle of winter." Cook's Straits, where the *Tory* now was, lies chiefly between the 40th and 41st parallels of latitude.

Colonel Wakefield found no difficulty in communicating with the native chiefs; but it was not so easy to acquire lands, not owing to any disinclination of the natives to sell them at a moderate price, but because it was difficult to ascertain who were the proper owners, or the owners who could convey a sound title. The general feeling of the natives is in favour of British settlements. They have tasted the benefits of civilisation sufficiently, to be very anxious for increased intercourse with the English, and for this

reason they appeared to Colonel Wakefield as if they would have willingly allowed the soil to be appropriated to a large extent, without looking for any remuneration. But the company was anxious that a reasonable, and, considering the circumstances, a liberal price, should be given for lands; and the main difficulty, as just stated, was to discover the parties who were entitled to part with the soil. An immense quantity of land had already been appropriated by private persons or by the missionary societies, without much ceremony.

Colonel Wakefield sent home a journal brought down to the 2d of September, and not long after, he dispatched another section of it, containing not less interesting intelligence. The second section of his journal commences on the 6th of September with a description of the trade carried on in Queen Charlotte's Sound, and other bays connected with Cook's Straits. He describes whalers in the pay of Sydney capitalists as being the chief followers of this hazardous but profitable commerce. It is estimated that the whale-fishery produces 1200 tons of oil per annum, and that the number of British who compose "shore-parties" in Cook's Straits and the stations on Banks's Peninsula, are about 500. They are a lawless set of people, quarrelling with the natives and among themselves. There are, however, some respectable persons among them.

On the 6th of September, Colonel Wakefield started with a small party on an expedition to explore the river Oyeroi or Pelorus, where he found the mountain scenery magnificent, but was not tempted to purchase land, finding it less fertile than it had been represented. Returning on the 11th, after a very difficult navigation, the party disembarked on Guard's Island, where they found a native settlement, with "excellent houses, and stores of pigs, potatoes, and flax," and where the people appeared "more independent, free from alarm, and happier" than any natives the party had yet seen.

Learning that the church missionaries were endeavouring to frustrate their views respecting Port Nicholson, a fine harbour and country in the Northern Island, about the centre of Cook's Straits, Colonel Wakefield now made haste thither. He met with a very hearty reception from the chiefs. "Epuri, an old chief, eagerly inquired the motives of our visit, and betrayed the most lively satisfaction at being informed that we wished to buy the place, and bring white men to it. He was followed by Warepori, his nephew, who is about thirty-five years old, and has for some years superseded the older chiefs in influence, by his prowess in war and skill in the rude arts cultivated by these people. He also in fine words expressed his desire to see white people here, and his willingness to sell the land, which was solemnly made over to him by the natives of this place five years ago, when the greater portion of them emigrated to one of the Chatham Islands in an English vessel, whose master they partly obliged to carry them.

The two chiefs remained on board at night. They informed us that the schooner had left some native missionaries here, who were instructed to have houses and chapels built by the time Mr W— was expected, with which orders they had complied. In discussing the merits of the missionary labours as opposed to the former practices of the natives, namely, those of war and cannibalism, they deprecated the constant occupation of praying and singing, which took people off from their potato-grounds and their canoes; the younger one declaring that the incessant worship had nearly driven him mad, whilst they at the same time warmly denounced any further fighting. "What we want," they said, "is to live in peace, and to have white people come amongst us. We are growing old," alluding to the numerous aged chiefs on shore, "and want our children to have protectors in Europeans; but we do not wish for the missionaries from the north. They are natives. We have been long told of vessels coming from Europe. One has at length arrived; and we will sell our land and harbour, and live with the white people when they come to us."

Colonel Wakefield ascended the principal river which falls into the bay, and was well satisfied with the capabilities of the district. The soil is a rich black loam; the timber excellent in quality and of various descriptions; and the navigation of the river, which was obstructed by heaps of stones and trees thrown across, susceptible of great improvement at slight expense.

Colonel Wakefield determined to fix upon this part of the island for the first and principal settlement of the company; and he lost no time in coming to terms with the natives. A very amusing and graphic account is given of the debates, in a sort of ambulatory parliament of the different tribes owning the territory, on the question of sale or no sale. There was an opposition, but not a formidable one; and after a large majority had agreed to sell the land, the minority was acquiescent. Colonel Wakefield thus describes his purchase:—

"I found a territory of forty or fifty miles in length by twenty-five or thirty in breadth, containing a noble harbour, accessible at all times, and in the very highway between New Holland and the Western world, and land exceeding in fertility any I have seen in those islands, and equalling that of an English garden. I found a race of people of warlike habits, and but little used to intercourse with Europeans, just emerging from their barbarism, and inclined to cultivate the

arts and intimacy of Great Britain; appreciating the protection from their hostile and still savage enemies that British settlers would afford, and anxiously desiring to assist them in their first labours in a new country. I found that these people, mustering, upon the slightest call, three hundred armed men, and quite capable, as they have repeatedly proved themselves, of retaining their possessions, and never having parted with a single acre of land in their district, by sale or otherwise, now, for the first time, disposed to make over their country to me, as the representative of a body of my countrymen, in consideration of the promises of remuneration and advantage I had held out to them. Under these circumstances, and following out the spirit of my instructions, I determined to act in the most liberal manner in the transaction. Moreover, I was most anxious to distinguish this bargain from all others that have been made in New Zealand, that none of the haggling and petty trading which usually take place between the Europeans and natives of this country should enter into any operations between the latter and the company's agents; and that the value of this property should not be regulated by what has hitherto been considered the standard of exchange in similar transactions."

The amount paid, of course, is not published; but the natives were highly pleased with their bargain, and eager to sell more of their land. The chiefs carefully examined the articles given in barter, and then signed a formal deed, alienating the land for ever. The war-dances, the hoisting of the New Zealand flag, and the formal ceremony of taking possession of the territory, are vividly described. Colonel Wakefield left a person in charge of his newly-acquired territory. "I had brought with me a person from Queen Charlotte's Sound, a trustworthy man, well qualified, by his knowledge of the language and habits of the people, for the purpose. I left with him saws, tools, garden seeds, and various articles of trade, in which to pay for native labour, and to supply himself with food. Warepori undertook to put him up in a new house at his village, and render him every assistance. I had landed also a sow which had littered on our voyage from England, and her progeny, the goats, and the poultry. I left Mr S— ample instructions to encourage the natives to build temporary houses at Thorndon, to plant potatoes, and to keep their pigs for their expected visitors; and supplied him with boards to place on the most prominent spots, on which is painted 'New Zealand Land Company.'"

This important business being settled, the Tory proceeded along the coast of the Northern Island towards the north, and on the 16th October came to an anchor off Kapiti, near Evans's Island. A smart battle had just then taken place between the two chief tribes in those parts, the Ngatirocwas and Ngatiawas, the latter of whom, a comparatively civilised and pacific race, had acted on the defensive, and been victorious. Colonel Wakefield had some intercourse with Raupero, a corrupt chief of the Kafia tribe, who had aided and instigated the Ngatirocwas, and with Hiho, an amiable young chief of the Ngatiawas; and, after some deliberations, and one somewhat wild scene, purchased the extensive tracts of land on both sides of Cook's Straits, forming "the commanding portions of the two islands." The goods given in exchange were upon the same liberal scale as in the case of Port Nicholson, and ultimately all the natives expressed themselves as quite satisfied. With regard to some portions of the ground purchased, it was known that there were other tribes, now dispossessed, who had claims upon them; but from these parties Colonel Wakefield apprehended no trouble of any consequence. In all cases he took care to have deeds of cession formally executed on the spot—a precaution the more necessary, as already speculators were sending emissaries from Sydney to buy up land in New Zealand, on a supposition of its soon acquiring a marketable value. For the next two or three weeks, Colonel Wakefield employed himself in sailing to different points in Cook's Straits, in order to buy up the claims of as many parties as possible. In concluding his survey of both sides of these straits, he gives a table of the native population of the principal districts, which he estimates as amounting in all to 6650.

Colonel Wakefield now proceeded to Hokianga, a deep inlet near the farther extremity of the Northern Island, leaving Mr Barrett, a whaling merchant, to arrange with the natives for the purchase of the lands more immediately to the north of Cook's Straits. He reached Hokianga on the 2d December, and entered into negotiations for the purchase of lands there and in the Bay of Islands, on the opposite or east side of the country. Private settlers are here numerous, some of them possessed of considerable tracts of land. Amongst others is a Baron Thierry, a Frenchman, whose right, however, to the land he professed to have bought, was disputed. The natives are not here so fine a people, physically or morally, as in the south, and not so ready to cede their lands. Colonel Wakefield obtained possession of a tract at Herd's Point, being the land purchased by Captain Herd in 1826, for the old company—reserved by the natives since that time—and now scrupulously made over to their successors. This done, he left Hokianga on the 13th December for Kaipara, another important inlet, a little farther to the south. At this point, he completed his third dispatch.

According to subsequent dispatches, the Tory struck

upon a (supposed) newly-formed sand-bank in going into Kaipara bay or harbour, and, though got off in twenty-four hours, sustained such damage that Colonel Wakefield judged it prudent to leave her for repairs, and proceed with his land-buying operations. Having therefore secured all important papers, he walked across the continent to the Bay of Islands, and there chartered a small brig to go to Kaipara, to take charge of the cargo and passengers. He likewise engaged another small vessel to take him to Port Hardy in D'Urville's Island (Cook's Straits), the place of rendezvous for the emigrant ships. He reached Port Hardy on the 11th January; but finding none of the emigrant vessels arrived, he judged it best to cross the straits to Port Nicholson, which he did in a whale boat, leaving an Englishman to direct these vessels to follow him thither. Port Nicholson was the place of all others which he thought suitable for the first settlement, and he was now anxious to prepare matters as far as possible for the arrival of the settlers. It is gratifying to state, that all the vessels dispatched last year had reached the port in safety before the 7th of last March.

Meanwhile the government had deemed it necessary to take some step regarding the colonisation of New Zealand. In August 1839, it dispatched Captain Hobson, R.N., as Lieutenant-Governor of New Zealand. He arrived at the Bay of Islands on the 30th of January, and on that day issued a proclamation, intimating that the queen did not deem it expedient for the interests either of her British subjects resorting to New Zealand, or for those of the native tribes, to recognise as valid any titles to land not derived from or confirmed by her majesty, but yet, "to dispel any apprehension that it was designed to dispossess the owners of land acquired on equitable conditions, and not in extent or otherwise prejudicial to the present or prospective interests of the community," declaring "that her majesty had been pleased to direct that a commission should be appointed, with certain powers to be derived from a Governor and Legislative Council of New South Wales, to inquire into and to report on all claims to such lands," and further intimating that "purchases of land in any part of New Zealand which may be made from any of the chiefs or native tribes after the date of these presents [January 30, 1840], will be considered as null and void, and will not be confirmed, or in any way recognised, by her majesty."

In terms of this proclamation, it will be necessary for all who have purchased land in New Zealand to prove their rights before the commission. Captain Hobson left the Bay of Islands on the 17th February, declaring it an unfit place to be the seat of government for New Zealand, being distant from the more fertile parts of the country, and cut off from all easy communication with the southward. He had previously had some conferences with the native chiefs relative to the acquisitions of land by the missionaries. But unfortunately the proceedings of this officer were brought to a sudden and unexpected stand on the 1st of March, by his having sustained a paralytic shock when on board H.M.S. Herald, at Waimate. In consequence of this calamity, he at first proposed to resign his duty; but when the last accounts left New Zealand, he had resumed his functions, and was nearly recovered. He had appointed magistrates of the districts, and fixed on the shores of the River and Bay of Waimate as the seat of his future government; while the surveying department were engaged in selecting the fittest site for the capital of the colony.

Other companies besides that represented by Colonel Wakefield have in the mean time been taking steps for promoting the colonisation of New Zealand. One of these, the *Plymouth Company of New Zealand*, advertised on the 18th July that it had secured an extensive purchase of land, and had sent out orders for the selection of a settlement. A thousand sections of town and rural land were in the way of being engaged, on the understanding that, out of the £.70 of purchase-money of each section, £.40 was to be expended in carrying out labourers. The *New Zealand Manakos and Waimata Company* acquired valuable tracts on those harbours (in Northern Island) in 1838, and sent out a clever young officer, Captain W. C. Symonds, H.M.S., to survey the same and report, before taking any further step. A report from Captain Symonds, dated in February last, and of a highly favourable nature, was received in July, and the company then proceeded to receive applications for 200 sections, of 1 town acre and 100 country acres each, at £.101 each, 65 per cent. of the purchase-money to be expended in taking out labourers. In last July, the *Paisley New Zealand Emigration Society* was formed in connexion with the London company, for the purpose of promoting an extensive emigration of hand-loom weavers from the west of Scotland to New Zealand. This scheme is creditable to the parties concerned, as it is certainly time that hand-loom labour were deserted. We heartily wish that the scheme may meet with that encouragement from the government and the wealthy part of the community, which appears to be necessary for its success. It is at the same time worthy of remark, that symptoms have appeared of an extensive emigration from South Australia to New Zealand.

While these proceedings have been going on on the part of the British, a French expedition has sailed for the same country, designing to appropriate land for a settlement, but chiefly to all appearance with a view to the whale-fishery. Penal settlements by both France

and England have been spoken of, but, we would hope, without the least chance of any such monstrosity being accomplished. Disputes between France and England respecting the sovereignty of New Zealand, have also been foreboded; but we have no fear that any thing of the kind, to an extent at all troublesome, will take place.

We have only to add, that our sole purpose in preparing this article is to present a connected and comprehensive view of the late proceedings respecting the colonisation of New Zealand, and this solely upon a consideration that these proceedings are of a generally interesting character. As to the eligibility of New Zealand as a place of settlement for individuals desirous of emigrating from their own country, we are totally unprepared to say one word; and therefore not one word shall be said.

"THE PARIS SKETCH-BOOK."

THE "Paris Sketch-Book," as its author Mr Titmarsh has chosen to name it, is a dashing, off-hand work, consisting of a variety of sketches of French manners and character, which, we dare say, come pretty near the truth. Papers on such personages as Robert Macaire, Cartouche, and George Sand, are intermingled with accounts of the French school of painting, Napoleon and his system, the drama, and other matters of lesser importance. A considerable portion of the volumes, we understand, has already appeared in periodical works. A few scraps which we select will convey an idea of the author's style of treating subjects.

A traveller's first impression of the streets of Paris is conveyed in the following passage:—"But, behold us at Paris! The diligence has reached a rude-looking gate, or *grille*, flanked by two lodges; the French kings of old made their entry by this gate; some of the hottest battles of the late revolution were fought before it. At present it is blocked by carts and peasants, and a busy crowd of men, in green, examining the packages before they enter, probing the straw with long needles. It is the Barrier of St Denis, and the green men are the customs' men of the city of Paris. If you are a countryman, who would introduce a cow into the metropolis, the city demands twenty-four francs for such a privilege: if you have a hundredweight of tallow candles, you must previously disburse three francs: if a drove of hogs, nine francs per whole hog. In the present instance, after a momentary pause, one of the men in green mounts by the side of the conductor, and the ponderous vehicle pursues its journey. The street which we enter, that of the Faubourg St Denis, presents a strange contrast to the dark uniformity of a London street, where every thing, in the dingy and smoky atmosphere, looks as though it were painted in India-ink—black houses, black passengers, and black sky. Here, on the contrary, is a thousand times more life and colour. Before you, shining in the sun, is a long glistening line of *gutter*—not a very pleasing object in a city, but in a picture invaluable. On each side are houses of all dimensions and hues; some but of one storey; some as high as the Tower of Babel. From these the haberdashers (and this is their favourite street) flaunt long strips of gaudy calicoes, which give a strange air of rude gaiety to the looks. Milkwomen, with a little crowd of gossips round each, are, at this early hour of the morning, selling the chief material of the Parisian *café-au-lait*. Gay wine-shops, painted red, and smartly decorated with vines and gilded railings, are filled with workmen taking their morning's draught. That gloomy looking prison on your right is a prison for women; once it was a convent for Lazzarists: a thousand unfortunate individuals of the softer sex now occupy that mansion: they bake, as we find in the guide-books, the bread of all the other prisons; they mend and wash the shirts and stockings of all the other prisoners; they make hooks and eyes, and phosphorus boxes, and they attend chapel every Sunday—if occupation can help them, sure they have enough of it. * * * But we have passed the prison long ago, and are at the Porte St Denis itself. Passing round the gate, and not under it (after the general custom, in respect of triumphal arches), you cross the Boulevard, which gives a glimpse of trees and sunshine, and gleaming white buildings; then, dashing down the Rue de Bourbon Villeneuve, a dirty street, which seems interminable, and the Rue St Eustache, the conductor gives a last blast on his horn, and the great vehicle clatters into the court-yard, where its journey is destined to conclude."

With respect to the French mode of representing the English and English manners on the stage, we have the following graphic picture. "I don't know whether the great Dumas has passed any time in England, but his plays show any thing but an intimate knowledge of our habits. Thus, in the play styled 'Kean,' the stage-manager is made to come forward and address the pit, with a speech beginning, 'My lords and gentlemen,' and a company of English women are introduced, and they all wear *pinafors*; as if British females were in the invariable habit of wearing this outer garment, or sllobbering their gowns without it.

* "The Paris Sketch-Book," by Mr Titmarsh. London: John Macrone. Two vols., with engravings. 1840.

There was another celebrated piece, enacted some years since, upon the subject of Queen Caroline, where our late sovereign, George, was made to play a most despicable part; and where Signor Bergami fought a duel with Lord Londonderry. In the last act of this play, the House of Lords was represented, and Sir Brougham made an eloquent speech in the queen's favour. Presently the shouts of the mob were heard without; from shouting they proceeded to pelting; and pasteboard-brickbats and cabbages came flying among the representatives of our hereditary legislature. At this unpleasant juncture, Sir Hardinge, the Secretary-at-War, rises and calls in the military; the act ends in a general row, and the ignominious fall of Lord Liverpool, laid low by a brickbat from the mob! The description of these scenes is, of course, quite incapable of conveying any notion of their general effect. You must have the solemnity of the actors, as they *meow* and *milor* one another, and the perfect gravity and good faith with which the audience listen to them. Our stage Frenchman is the old marquis, with sword and pig-tail, and spangled court coat. The Englishman of the French theatre has invariably a red wig, and almost always leather gaiters, and a long white upper Benjamin; he remains as he was represented in the old caricatures, after the peace. And to conclude this catalogue of blunders: in the famous piece of the 'Shipwreck of the Medusa,' the first act is laid on board an English ship-of-war, all the officers of which appeared in light blue or green coats (the lamp-light prevented our distinguishing the colour accurately), in little blue coats, and *TOP BOOTS*!"

All this is certainly very ridiculous, but how, it may be asked, are Frenchmen represented on the stage in England! They are made to appear as thin shivering old men, or in some other guise equally unlike the reality.

The author does not like to travel by railways, because the rate of speed destroys all romance, a reason too fanciful and poetic to be worth combating. Of the journey from the French capital to Versailles, now performed by steam, he observes:—"This little journey, then, from Paris to Versailles, that used to be so merry of old, has lost its pleasures since the disappearance of the cuckoos; and I would as lief have for companions the statues that lately took a coach from the bridge opposite the Chamber of Deputies, and stepped out in the court of Versailles, as the most part of the people who now travel on the railroad. The stone figures are not a whit more cold and silent than these persons, who used to be, in the old cuckoos, so talkative and merry. The prattling gissette, and her swain from the Ecole de Droit; the huge Alsatian carabinier, grim smiling under his sandy moustaches, and glittering brazen helmet; the jolly nurse, in red calico, who had been to Paris, to show mamma her darling Lolo, or Gustave; what merry companions one used to find squeezed into the crazy old vehicles that formerly performed the journey!"

The town is certainly the most moral of towns. You pass, from the railroad station, through a long, lonely suburb, with dusty rows of stunted trees on either side, and some few miserable beggars, idle boys, and ragged old women, under them. Behind the trees are gaunt, mouldy houses, palaces once, where the cheap defence of nations gambled, ogled, swindled, intrigued; whence mighty princes rolled away, in gilt carriages, hot for the honour of lighting his majesty to bed, or of presenting his stockings when he rose, or of holding his napkin when he dined. Tailors, chandlers, timmen, wretched hucksters, and green-grocers, are now established in the mansions of the old peers; small children are yelling at the doors, with mouths besmeared with bread and treacle; damp rags are hanging out of every one of the windows, steaming in the sun; oyster-shells, cabbage-stalks, broken crockery, old papers, lie baking in the same cheerful light. A solitary water-cart goes jingling down the wide pavement, and spirits a feeble refreshment over the dusty thirsty stones."

Louis XIV. expended a thousand million of francs in the erection of Versailles. "In the year 1681, then, the great king, with bag and baggage, with guards, cooks, chamberlains, jesuits, gentlemen, lackeys, Fenelons, Molières, Lazars, Bossuets, Villars, Villeroys, Louvois, Colberts, transported himself to his new palace; the old one being left for James of England, and Jaquette his wife, when their time should come. And when the time did come, and James sought his brother's kingdom, it is on record that Louis hastened to receive and console him, and promised to restore, incontinently, those islands from which the *canaille* had turned him. Between brothers such a gift was a trifle."

Out of the window the king's august head was one day thrust, when old Condé was painfully toiling up the steps of the court below. "Don't hurry yourself, my cousin," cries magnanimity; "one who has to carry so many laurels cannot walk fast." At which all the courtiers, lackeys, chamberlains, jesuits, and scullions, clasp their hands, and burst into tears. Men are affected by the tale to this very day. For a century and three-quarters, have not all the books that speak of Versailles, or Louis Quatorze, told the story!—"Don't hurry yourself, my cousin!" Oh, admirable king and christian! what a pitch of condescension is here, that the greatest king of all the world should go for to say any thing so kind, and really tell a tottering old gentleman, worn out with gout, age, and wounds, not to walk too fast! What a proper fund of slavish-

ness is there in the composition of mankind, that histories like these should be found to interest and awe them!"

Passing on to some gossip about a later period of French history, the author proceeds:—"If any man is curious, and can get permission, he may mount to the roofs of the palace, and see where Louis XVI. used, royally, to amuse himself, by gazing upon the doings of all the town's-people below with a telescope. Louis is said to have been such a smart journeyman blacksmith, that he might, if Fate had not perversely placed a crown on his head, have earned a couple of louis every week, by the making of locks and keys. Those who will, may see the workshop, where he employed many useful hours; Madame Elizabeth was at prayers; meanwhile, the queen was making pleasant parties with her ladies; monsieur, the Count d'Artois, was learning to dance on the tight-rope; and Monsieur de Provence was cultivating *l'éloquence du billet*, and studying his favourite Horace. It is said that each member of the august family succeeded remarkably well in his or her pursuits; big monsieur's little notes are still cited. At a minuet, or sillabub, poor Antoinette was unrivalled; and Charles, on the tight-rope, was so graceful and so gentle, that Madame Sagu might envy him. The time only was out of joint."

M'CULLOCH, THE MECHANICIAN.

IN the Scots Magazine for May 1789, there is a report by Captain Philip d'Auvergne, of the *Narcissus* frigate, on the practical utility of Kenneth M'Culloch's sea compasses. The captain, after an eighteen months' trial of their merits, compared with those of all the other kinds in use at the time, describes them as immensely superior, and earnestly recommends to the admiralty their general introduction into the navy. In passing, on one occasion, through the Race of Alderney in the winter of 1787, there broke out a frightful storm, and so violent was the opposition of the wind and tide, that while his vessel was sailing at the rate of eleven miles on the surface, she was making scarce any headway by the land. The sea rose tremendously—at once short, high, and irregular; and the motions of the vessel were so fearfully abrupt and violent, that scarce a seaman aboard could stand on deck. At a time so critical, when none of the compasses supplied from his majesty's stores would stand, but vacillated more than three points on each side of the pole, "it commanded," says the captain, "the admiration of the whole crew, winning the confidence of even the most timorous, to see how quickly and readily M'Culloch's steering compass recovered the vacillations communicated to it by the motion of the ship and the shocks of the sea, and how truly, in every brief interval of rest, it pointed to the pole." It is further added, that on the captain's recommendation these compasses were tried on board the *Andromeda*, commanded at the time by Prince William Henry, our late king; and so satisfied was the prince of the utility of the invention, that he too became a strenuous advocate for their general introduction, and testified his regard for the ingenious inventor, by appointing him his compass-maker. M'Culloch, however, did not long survive the honour, dying a few years after, and we have been unable to trace with any degree of certainty the further history of his improved compasses. But though only imperfectly informed regarding his various inventions—and they are said to have been many, and singularly practical—we are tolerably well acquainted with the story of his early life; and as it furnishes a striking illustration of that instinct of genius, if we may so express ourselves, which leads the possessor to exactly the place in which his services may be of most value to the community, by rendering him useless and unhappy in every other, we think we cannot do better than communicate it to the reader.

There stood, about forty years ago, on the northern side of the parish of Cromarty, an old farm-house—one of those low, long, dark-looking erections of turf and stone, which still survive in the remoter districts of Scotland, as if to show how little man may sometimes improve, in even a civilised country, on the first rude shelter which his necessities owed to his ingenuity. Such was the farm-house of Woodside, in which Kenneth M'Culloch, the son of the farmer, was born some time in the early half of the last century. The family from which he sprung—a race of honest, plodding tenants—had held the place from the proprietor of Cromarty for more than a hundred years before, and it was deemed quite a matter of course that Kenneth, the eldest son, should succeed his father in the farm. Never was there a time, in at least this part of the country, in which agriculture stood more in need of the services of original and inventive minds. There was not a wheeled cart in the parish, nor a plough constructed on the modern principle. There was no changing of seed to suit the varieties of soil, no green cropping, no rotatory system of production; and it seemed as if the main object of the farmer had been to raise the least possible amount of grain at the greatest possible expense of labour. There was the single-tilled plough, that did little more than scratch the surface; the wooden-toothed harrow, that did hardly so much; the cumbersome sledge—no inconsiderable load of itself—for carrying home the corn in harvest; and the basket-woven conical cart, with its rollers of wood, for bearing out the manure in spring. And yet, now that a singularly inventive mind had come into existence

on this very farm, and though its attentions had been directed, as far as external influence could direct them, to the various employments of the farmer, the interests of husbandry were to be in no degree improved by the circumstance. Nature, in the midst of her wisdom, seems to cherish a dash of the eccentric. The ingenuity of the farmer's son was to be employed, not in facilitating the labours of the farmer, but in inventing binnacle lamps, which would yield an undiminished light amidst the agitations of a tempest, and in constructing mariners' compasses on a new principle.

Kenneth's first employment was the tending of a flock of sheep, the property of his father, and wretchedly did he acquit himself of the charge. The farm is bounded on the eastern side by a deep bosky ravine, through the bottom of which a scanty rannel rather trickles than flows; and when it was discovered on any occasion that Kenneth's flock had been left to take care of themselves, and of his father's corn to boot—and such occasions were wofully frequent—Kenneth himself was almost invariably to be found in this ravine. He would sit for hours among the bushes engaged with his knife in carving uncouth faces on the heads of walking-sticks, or in constructing little water-mills, or in making Lilliputian pumps of the dried stalks of the larger hemlock, and in raising the waters of the rannel to basins dug in the sides of the hollow. Sometimes he quitted his charge altogether, and set out for a meal-mill about a quarter of a mile from the farm, where he would linger for half a day at a time watching the motion of the wheels. His father complained that he could make nothing of him. "The boy," he said, "seemed to have nearly as much sense as other boys of his years, and yet, for any one useful purpose, he was nothing better than an idiot." His mother, who was an easy, kind-hearted woman, had better hopes of him. Kenneth, she affirmed, was only a little peculiar, and would turn out well after all. He was growing up, however, without improving in the slightest, and when he became tall enough for the plough, he made a dead stand. He would go and be a tradesman, he said—a mason, or smith, or house-carpenter—any thing his friends chose to make him; but a farmer he would not be. His father, after a fruitless struggle to overcome his obstinacy, carried him with him to an acquaintance in Cromarty, an ingenious cabinet-maker, named Donald Sandison; and after candidly confessing that he was of no manner of use at home, and would, he was afraid, be of little use any where, he bound him by indenture to the mechanic for four years.

Kenneth's new master was one of the best workmen in his profession in the north of Scotland. He was an intelligent man, too, as well as a superior mechanic. With all his general intelligence, however, and all his skill, he failed to discover the latent capabilities of his apprentice. Kenneth was dull and absent, and had no heart to his work; and though he seemed to understand the principles on which his master's various tools were used and the articles of his trade constructed, as well as at least as any workman in the shop, there were none among them who used the tools so awkwardly, or constructed the articles so ill. An old botchling carpenter who wrought in a little shop at the other end of the town, was known to the boys of the place by the humorous appellation of "Spul-(or spoil) the-wood," and Kenneth came to be regarded as a sort of second of the same name—as a fashioner of ricketty tables, ill-fitted drawers, and chairs that, when sat upon, creaked like badly-tuned organs. Such, in short, were his deficiencies as a mechanic, that in the third year of his apprenticeship his master advised his father to take him home with him and set him to the plough—an advice, however, on which the farmer, warned by his previous experience, sturdily refused to act.

It was remarked that Kenneth acquired more in the last year of his apprenticeship than in all the others. His skill as a workman still ranked a little below the average ability; but then it was only a little below it: he seemed, too, to enjoy more, and become less bashful and awkward. His master on one occasion brought him aboard a vessel in the harbour, to repair some injury which her bulwarks had sustained in a storm; and Kenneth, for the first time in his life, was introduced to the mariner's compass. The master in after days, when his apprentice had become a great man, used to relate the circumstance with much complacency, and compare him, as he bent over the instrument in wonder and admiration, to a negro of the Kanga tribe worshipping the elephant's tooth. On the close of his apprenticeship, he left this part of the country for London, accompanied by his master's eldest son, a lad of a rather thoughtless disposition, but, like his father, a first-rate workman.

Kenneth soon began to experience the straits and hardships of the inferior mechanic. His companion found little difficulty in procuring employment, and none at all in retaining it when once procured. Kenneth, on the contrary, was tossed about from shop to shop, and from one establishment to another; and for a full twelvemonth, during the half of which he was wholly unemployed, he did not work for more than a fortnight together with any one master. It would have fared worse with him than it did, were it not for his companion, Willie Sandison, who generously shared his earnings with him every time he stood in need of his assistance. In about a year after they had gone to London, however, Willie, an honest and warm-hearted but thoughtless lad, was inveigled into a dis-

reputable marriage, and lost in consequence his wonted ability to assist his companion. We have seen one of Kenneth's letters to his old master, written about this time, in which he bewails Willie's mishap, and dwells gloomily on his own prospects. How these first began to brighten we are unable to say, for there occurs about this period a wide gap in his story, which all our inquiries regarding him have not enabled us to fill up; but in a second letter to his mother, now before us, which bears date 1772, just ten years after the other, there are the proofs of a surprising improvement in his circumstances and condition.

He writes in high spirits. Just before sitting down to his desk he had heard from his old friend Willie, who had gone out to one of the colonies, where he was thriving in spite of his wife. He had heard, too, by the same post from his mother, who had been so kind to him during his luckless boyhood; and the old woman was well. He had, besides, been enabled to remove from his former lodging to a fine airy house in Duke's Court, opposite St Martin's Church, for which he had engaged, he said, to pay a rent of forty-two pounds per annum—a very considerable sum sixty-eight years ago; and he had entered into an advantageous contract with Catherine of Russia for furnishing all the philosophical instruments of a new college then erecting in Petersburg—a contract which promised to secure about two years' profitable employment to himself and seven workmen. In the ten years which had intervened between the dates of his two letters, Kenneth McCulloch had become one of the most skilful and inventive mechanicians in London, perhaps in the world. He rose gradually into affluence and celebrity, and for a considerable period before his death, his gains were estimated at about a thousand a year.—*Abridged from the Witness (Edinburgh newspaper).*

THE CLOUDS.

[BY MELLE, AN AMERICAN WRITER.]

Oh clouds! ye ancient messengers,
Old couriers of the sky,
Treading, as in primeval years,
You still immensity!
In march how wildly beautiful
Along the deep ye tower,
Begirt, as when from chaos dull
Ye loomed in pride and power,
To crown creation's morning hour.
Ye perish not, ye passing clouds!
But, with the speed of time,
Ye flit your shadowy shapes, like shrouds,
O'er each emerging clime;
And thus on broad and furled wings
Ye float in light alone;
Where every jewell'd planet sings
Its clear eternal song,
Over the path our friends have gone!
Against that deep and peerless blue
Ye hold your journeying—
That silent birth-place of the dew,
Where life and lustre spring.
And then, how goldenly ye shine
On your immortal way,
Sailing through realms so near divine,
Under the fount of day!
O'er ye concenter'd glories play.
Ye posters of the wakeless air!
How silently ye glide
Down the unfathom'd atmosphere,
That deep—deep, azure tide!
And thus in giant pomp ye go,
On high and reckless range,
Above earth's gladness and its woe,
Through centuries of change.
Your destiny how lone and strange
Ye bear the bow of beauty—flung
On your triumphal path,
Splendid as first in joy it hung
O'er God's retiring wrath.
The promise and the covenant
Are written on your brow—
The mercy to the sinful sent
Is lending o'er them now.
Ye bear the memory of the vow.
Ye linger with the silver stars,
Ye pass before the sun—
Ye marshal elements to wars,
And when the roar is done,
Ye lift your volumed robes in light,
And wave them to the world,
Like victory flags o'er scatter'd fight,
Brave banners all unfurled—
Still there, though rent and tempest-hurled
Ye bear the living thunder out,
Ye pagans of the sky!
Answering with trumpets' bristling shout
The lightning's scorching eye.
Pale faces cluster under ye,
Beneath your withering look,
And shaking hearts how fearfully
At your sublime rebuke.
Has man his mockery foreworn?
And then, in still and summer hours,
When men sit weary down,
Ye come o'er heated fields and flowers,
With shadowy plumes on—
Ye hover where the fervent earth
A sudden silence fills,
And, mourning o'er its stricken'd mirth,
Ye weep along the hills.
Then how the wakening landscape thrills!
And thus ye circle countless spheres,
Old spirits of the skies!
The same through nature's smiles and tears,
Ye rose on paradise.
I hear a voice from out your shrouds,
That tells me of decay—
For though ye stay not, hurdling clouds,
Till the last gathering day,
Ye pass like life's dim dreams away.

MERINO SHEEP INTRODUCED INTO RUSSIA.

One of the most successful as well as interesting speculations in southern Russia, has been in merinos; and the commencement was attended with such difficulty and chance, as to make it rather romantic. M. Rouvier, a French merchant at Malaga, on becoming bankrupt in 1802, resolved to try fortune anew in Russia. He embarked in a vessel bound to the Euxine, and landed at Sevastopol. Thence, traversing the country to Nicolaef, he was struck with the extent and fertility of the steppes; and reverting to the grazing lands in Spain, thought that merinos would thrive on them. His fortune then consisted, it might be said, in a piece of paper and a pencil. He drew out a memoir, in which he described the condition and expense of merinos in Spain, and pointed out the advantage of introducing the breed into a country where pasturage was unlimited and unowned. This was sent to the minister of the interior. The author demanded a grant of 10,000 *desiatines* of land, and a loan of 100,000 roubles without interest: he offered to return to Spain to purchase rams; and proposed that a government agent should accompany him if deemed requisite. He engaged to have 10,000 merinos on his land at the end of twelve years, and to have repaid half of the loan. The government agreed to these terms. A vessel was freighted for M. Rouvier, who sailed for Spain, provided with letters for the Russian embassy at Madrid. On arriving at Malaga, the hitherto successful adventurer caught the yellow fever, and there lost three months between sickness and quarantine. This delay nearly caused the complete failure of the enterprise; for when he at length reached Madrid, the Russian ambassador had just quarrelled with Godoy, and therefore no assistance was forthcoming in that quarter. In those days the exportation of merinos was prohibited, and only granted occasionally as a special favour. After dancing attendance for two months, and exhausting all the ante-chamber modes of obtaining his suit indirectly, Rouvier solicited an audience of the Prince of Peace, with the determination to throw himself at his feet, if necessary, in order to gain leave to export a few rams. Godoy said to him, "If you had addressed yourself to me in the first place, I would have granted your request; but as you chose to make the Russian ambassador your mediator, you may return: you shall not have one sheep." Rouvier accordingly left Madrid, and returned to Malaga in despair; for the issue of the negotiation was to make his fortune, or leave him a beggar. He was about to re-embark for Russia, when an Hidalgo came to him mysteriously, and said, "I know your object: I will dispose of one hundred rams to you; name the breed you prefer, and you shall have them." Rouvier of course accepted the unexpected offer, and willingly agreed to the enormous price demanded. It was settled between them that he should ship a slight cargo for the Crimea, to avert suspicion; then sail, and after dark alter his course for a certain cove to the westward of Malaga. If his signal-light should be answered, he was to send his boat on shore for the sheep, with the money. All turned out as desired; and, Jason-like, he sailed away triumphantly with the golden fleece. At the Dardanelles he was detained two months by a foul wind. He arrived at Sevastopol at length with eighty sheep remaining out of the hundred, and there experienced another delay by quarantine. That being terminated, the ship was weighing anchor to move into the harbour, half a mile distant, when Rouvier, struck by a presentiment of danger, entreated the captain to land him and his flock at the lazaretto. The captain ridiculed his fears, and naturally objected to lose time in order to gratify a whim. Nevertheless, he yielded to the nearly frantic solicitations of his passenger, and set him on shore with his sheep. Scarcely was he landed, and the vessel under sail, when a squall took her between the reefs which form the entrance of Sevastopol harbour, and threw her on the rocks, where she bilged and went to pieces. M. Rouvier led his charge to Theodosia. He gave twenty rams to the minister of the interior, twenty to the president of the council, and with forty commenced operations on his own account. He crossed with sheep of the country, and four years afterwards obtained an important addition to his stock from Saxony. He fully realised his promises, and left a large fortune amongst his three daughters, one of whom had married his partner, Mr Wassel.—*Stale's Travels in Germany and Russia, just published.*

MRS SOMERVILLE.

Even in the lowest class of rustic geniuses there is some stimulus of ambition and companionship; boys applaud and encourage one another; a girl usually hides her occupations. Ferguson was nothing to Mrs Somerville. Imagine a pretty young woman, the darling of a family, addicted to the gay life usual to idle people in a large city, liked as well as admired by every one, only hidden sometimes by her relations for reading too much, and told how unamiable it was to be a blue-stocking—stealing away into her solitary chamber, to pore unaided over the difficulties of geometry and algebra, and commune with the stars. How deep, and generous, and beautiful, was the enthusiasm of that young mind! How clear and ardent the spirit that would "scorn delights and live laborious days," for no reward, but the pleasure of exercising its strong energies! How lofty that pure ambition which was content with victory, and required not applause!—*Thoughts on the Ladies of the Aristocracy.*

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